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RECENT CICERO LITERATURE

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Publications relating to Cicero have fully kept pace in number and importance with the marked literary activity in other departments of classical study. The range of Cicero's versatile genius is so great that he claims the attention of scholars in many fields of research, and a mere bibliographical list of Ciceroniana for the past ten or fifteen years would reach appalling proportions. It is not my purpose, however, in the following pages to cover the whole field, but rather to limit myself to such books of a general character as contain material of especial importance for the student of Cicero, and to such specific publications as have to do with those portions of the author commonly read in secondary schools.

In school editions the popular textbooks of former years have appeared in revisions, and the number has been increased by many new ones. The general tendency of all these is to give special prominence to collateral work in history and in antiquities—a feature which contributes much to an intelligent interpretation of the text. They are, further, superior to the older editions in using as a new textus receptus the recension of C. F. W. Müller (Leipzig, 1896–98). The choice offered to teachers is from the following:

Select Orations and Letters of Cicero (Allen and Greenough's edition). Revised by J. B. Greenough and G. L. Kittredge. Ginn & Co., 1902.

Selected Orations of Cicero. By Charles E. Bennett. Allyn & Bacon, 1904.

Select Orations of Cicero. By Benjamin L. D'Ooge. Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1901.

Eight Orations of Cicero. By Charles E. Forbes. Appleton, 1903. Nine Orations of Cicero. By Albert Harkness, assisted by John C Kirtland, Jr., and George A. Williams. American Book Co., 1906.

Ten Orations of Cicero with Selections from the Letters. By William R. Harper and Frank Gallup. American Book Co., 1808.

Selected Orations and Letters of Cicero. By Harold W. Johnston. Scott, Foresman & Co., 1896.

Select Orations and Letters of Cicero. By Francis W. Kelsey. Allyn & Bacon, 4th ed., 1896.

Marcus Tullius Cicero. Ten Orations, with the Letters to his Wife. By Richard Alexander von Minckwitz. The Macmillan Co., 1903.

Eleven Orations of Cicero. By Robert W. Tunstall. University Publishing Co., 1904.

Six Orations of Cicero (an abridged edition of the foregoing), 1906.

Besides these well-known American editions, many have appeared in Europe, some of which are especially meritorious, and contain much material that can be used to advantage by our teachers. I shall mention only a few and limit myself to editions of the Catilinarian orations, the *Pro lege Manilia* and the *Pro Archia*.

There are many excellent foreign school texts of the Orationes in Catilinam. In Germany Karl Halm's famous In Catilinam I-IV und Pro Archia was revised for its fourteenth edition by G. Laubmann and published in 1901. An adaptation of Halm's work appears in English in A. S. Wilkins' edition (London, 1895). Other unusually good German editions of these orations are H. Nohl's (3d ed., Leipzig, 1897), Richter and Eberhard's (6th ed., Leipzig, 1898), C. Stegmann's (revised ed., Leipzig, 1905), and H. Hachtmann's (6th ed., Gotha, 1899). Nohl also published in 1895 a Schülerkommentar zu Ciceros Catilinarischen Reden which contains much that is valuable for teacher and pupil alike. A good English edition is that by C. H. Keene (London, 1899).

The collateral reading of Sallust's Catiline, either in the original or in translation, is a practice followed in many schools, and is highly

to be commended. The standard edition in Germany is that of J. H. Schmalz (5th ed., Gotha, 1897). It has been adapted to the use of American schools by Charles G. Herbermann (Boston, 1891). A translation of Sallust's *Catiline* was published by Macmillan in 1886, and by Poole in 1888.

Interesting questions connected with the conspiracy are discussed by Hugo Willrich in De coniurationis Catilinariae fontibus (Göttingen, 1803), and by H. C. Nutting in "Notes on the Conspiracy of Catiline" in the Proceedings of the American Philological Association, Vol. XXXV. Schnorr von Carolsfeld in Die Reden und Briefe bei Sallust (Leipzig, 1888) discusses the authenticity of Catiline's letter in the third oration, and claims that Cicero changed it, Sallust giving the correct version. The Latin Leaflet for May 16, 1904, contains an interesting article by Max Radin on the conviction of Lentulus, in which he maintains that, from the standpoint of a modern court of justice, much of the evidence offered by Cicero was incompetent and quite inadequate for a conviction. F. F. Abbott in the Classical Journal for January, 1907, discusses the "Constitutional Argument in the Fourth Catilinarian Oration," tending to show that the usual interpretation according to which Lentulus and his companions were executed under the authority of the senatus consultum ultimum is incorrect, and that Cicero does not even refer to the passing of such a measure. Of more than usual value to the teacher of secondary Latin is Gaston Boissier's recent volume, La conjuration de Catilina (Paris, 1905), an appreciative review of which appeared in the Classical Journal for February, 1907.

The recent German editions of the *Pro lege Manilia* are numerous and excellent. Especially worthy of mention are the following: H. Nohl, *Ciceros Rede jür den Oberbejehl des Cn. Pompeius* (Leipzig, 1894), containing a valuable appendix on the *cursus honorum* in Cicero's time; Richter and Eberhard, *Imperium des Cn. Pompeius* (Leipzig, 1901), a book which has been frequently revised and is among the best. Stegmann, whose edition of the Catilinarian orations was mentioned above, has included the *Pro lege Manilia* in the same volume. It is a much more sumptuous edition than is usual in Germany, and contains two good maps and a plan of the Forum. From England we have J. C. Nichols' *Pro lege Manilia* (London, 1900).

As might be expected, there is no lack of good foreign editions of the *Pro Archia*. Especially notable are the editions by H. Nohl. In 1898 appeared his *Schülerkommentar zu den Reden gegen Q. Caecilius und für Archias*; in 1903, his third edition of *Die Rede für Archias*, containing a useful appendix on the extent and significance of Roman citizenship; and in 1905, his revision of Richter and Eberhard's fourth edition (all published in Leipzig). In England Allcroft and Plaistowe published (London, 1892) an edition containing, besides introduction, text, and notes, a vocabulary of proper names with historical explanations, review questions, a general vocabulary, and a translation. Worthy of mention, too, is G. H. Nall's edition (London, 1901).

The pedagogical literature on Cicero has been peculiarly rich during the period we are considering. Pre-eminent in their field are the works of P. Dettweiler and O. Weissenfels. The former in his Untersuchungen über den didaktischen Wert Ciceronianischer Schulschriften (Halle 1889–92) discusses the pedagogical value of a number of the orations. He continues the same subject in Didaktik und Methodik des lateinischen Unterrichts (Vide Vol. III of Baumeister's Handbuch, 2d ed., Munich, 1906). The first two chapters of Weissenfels' Cicero als Schulschriftsteller (Leipzig, 1896) are especially instructive. In the first he discusses classical Latin prose, and in the second Cicero's character. In his judgment the orations are not so well fitted for educational purposes as his rhetorical and philosophical writings. Dettweiler inclines to the same view, though he seems led to that opinion by the hostile criticism of Drumann and Mommsen. Weissenfels' book is considered by German critics as the most important of its class that has appeared in recent years. Another book of a different character, but which teachers of Cicero will find very helpful, is Middleton and Miller's Students' Companion to Latin Authors (London, 1896).

For Cicero's public career we must turn, not only to his biographies, but to the general histories of Rome. I mention a few of the most important. Of the larger histories Mommsen's, in its latest edition, and Ihne's, are monumental works of unrivaled authority. W. Drumann's Geschichte Roms, oder Pompeius, Caesar, Cicero und ihre Zeitgenossen, a work which represents Cicero in the most unfavor-

able light possible and which for many years exerted a most malign influence upon his reputation, was revised by P. Groehe and published in a new edition in 1899 (Berlin). Similarly H. G. Liddell's history was revised by P. V. M. Benecke (London, 1901), who added chapters on the history of literature and art.

Of biographical works there have been many. Of them it may be said in general that, while Cicero's reputation as a statesman has never fully recovered from the shattered condition in which it was left by Drumann, his literary fame has steadily increased and is better founded today than ever before, and is now based upon the results of critical and impartial investigation rather than upon the blind adulation of earlier years. This truer and better estimate of his character and writings is due especially to the works of Fr. Aly (Cicero, sein Leben und seine Schriften, Berlin, 1891), Th. Zielinski (Cicero im Wandelder Jahrhunderte, Leipzig, 1807), and O. Weissenfels (see above). Aly makes him out more of a hero than the critic of his political life will be ready to admit, but was doubtless led to this extreme by the virulence of Cicero's detractors. Zielinski's apology has peculiar interest because it comes in the form of an address delivered on the two-thousandth anniversary of Cicero's birth. Further should be mentioned Gardthausen's Augustus und seine Zeit (Leipzig, 1801), which contains a fine character-sketch of Cicero, Cauer's Ciceros politisches Denken (Berlin, 1903), and S. Baring-Gould's Tragedy of the Caesars (London, 1892), who devotes considerable space to Cicero. The following three books are peculiarly adapted to youthful readers and should be in every high-school library: Boissier, Cicero and His Friends: A Study of Roman Society in the Time of Caesar, translated by A. D. Jones (London, 1807); Fausset, The Students' Cicero (New York, 1890); and Strachan-Davidson, Cicero, and the Fall of the Roman Republic (New York, 1896).

The histories of Roman Literature naturally discuss Cicero at great length. There have been recent additions of the very first importance in this field. Teuffel's *History of Roman Literature*, revised and enlarged by Ludwig Schwabe in 1890 and translated into English by George C. W. Warr, was published in London in 1891–92. It is a work of imposing scholarship, the utmost reliability and com-

pleteness. As a reference book for sources it has no superior. Equally notable is Martin Schanz's Geschichte der römischen Litteratur in Müller's Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft. This work, in process of publication ever since 1800, and covering the entire field from the beginning to the reign of Justinian inclusive, was completed in 1904. It is divided into five parts, making four volumes. A second edition of Part III, which covers the period from Hadrian to Constantine, appeared in 1905. The discussion of Cicero covers seventy-five pages in Part I. The work is an authority of the first rank. Mention should be made also of Clovis Lamarre's Histoire de la littérature latine (Paris, 1902). Cicero's life and works are treated in extenso in Vol. III (pp. 5-360). In Vol. IV (pp. 196-364) are given a number of choice selections from our author with translations. He gives, further, an analysis of each of the fifty-three orations and a criticism of their thought, difficulties, and diction. As a manual for secondary schools, J. W. Mackail's Latin Literature (New York, 1805) deserves commendation.

Many of the books already mentioned give considerable space to Cicero's style as a writer and orator, notably Weissenfels' Cicero als Schulschriftsteller; but Norden's Die antike Kunstprosa (Leipzig, 1898) is in a class by itself and is in every respect a masterly work. Besides the discussion of Cicero in the body of the book (pp. 212-33). there is an appendix giving a history of the rhythmical cadence with special reference to Cicero's orations. Other works are: Cruttwell and Banton's Specimens of Latin Literature (London, 1896), the second part of which is devoted to a consideration of Latin style; Doyle's Introduction to the Study of Rhetoric (London, 1893), which contains (Part II, pp. 1-131) a life of Cicero, a criticism of him in his various aspects, and abstracts and analyses of eight of his bestknown orations; Goss's Forensic Eloquence (San Francisco, 1891), who devotes the first chapter to Cicero and Roman Orators; Lorenzo Sears's History of Oratory (Chicago, 1896), containing a chapter on "Cicero as a Rhetorician and as a Politician;" Hardwicke's History of Oratory and Orators (New York, 1896), especially Roman oratory (pp. 24-69).

Though there have been many minor publications, mainly doctors' dissertations, dealing with one or another question of Ciceronian

syntax, it is somewhat remarkable that no comprehensive treatment of the subject was at hand until the publication of Lebreton's Études sur la langue et la grammaire de Cicéron (Paris, 1901). This book might well be in the library of every teacher of Cicero. Its contents are as follows: chap. i, agreement; chap. ii, substantives; chap. iii, pronouns; chap. iv, verbs, the absolute use of transitives, list of verbs which are sometimes intransitive; chaps. v-vi, moods and tenses; chap. vii, prepositions. Some of the results of this investigation are surprising, as, for example, the numerous instances in which a is used before the names of things.

In lexicography we are glad to record the completion of Merguet's Handlexikon zu Cicero (Leipzig, 1905). His large lexicons to Cicero's orations and to his philosophical works are well known; but besides being expensive and not generally accessible, they do not include his rhetorical writings nor his letters. A small lexicon including all Cicero's words was greatly needed. The Lexicon Ciceronianum of Nizolius had become antiquated and the text of many passages has been greatly changed since its publication. Students of Cicero will therefore welcome this contribution which covers in its 816 pages all Cicero's works, is trustworthy in its text citations, and is sold at moderate cost.

The study of synonyms should accompany the reading of Cicero, and some of our best textbooks make provision for this. Where such provision is lacking, teachers can draw all needed material from Menge's *Lateinische Synonymik*, the fourth edition of which was published in 1900. The third edition, published eighteen years before, had for some time been out of print. Menge discusses 364 verbs and nouns, and his work is accurate and scholarly.

There is no more important collateral work to be done while teaching Cicero than the skilful preparation and presentation of such material as will assist the student in constructing for himself the proper classical atmosphere and environment. That is to say, the student must gain a certain amount of knowledge of Roman history, political institutions, religious affairs, topography, art, and antiquities, or his interpretation will be neither intelligent nor sympathetic. The best of our textbooks make some provision for instruction in these essentials, but books of reference and illustrative material should be at hand to

supplement these slender resources. Fortunately these can be procured without large expense. On institutional history of course Mommsen's Römisches Staatsrecht is the great authority, but F. F. Abbott's Roman Political Institutions (Boston, 1901) gives in small compass an abundance of material for the secondary school. So in antiquities, forbearing to mention monumental treatises like Friedländer's, Blümner's, and Marquardt's, we are fortunate in possessing such small manuals as The Private Life of the Romans by Preston and Dodge (Boston, 1803), and one of similar title by H. W. Johnston (Chicago, 1903). Especially suitable for youthful readers and affording a most interesting introduction to the life of the ancients are Church's Two Thousand Years Ago: The Adventures of a Roman Boy (New York, 1885), Roman Life in the Days of Cicero (New York, 1883), and Pictures from Roman Life and Story (New York, 1892). On Roman topography, in connection with Cicero as well as with other Latin authors, the most generally useful book for educational purposes is Platner's Topography and Monuments of Ancient Rome (Boston, 1904). It has nine maps and plans, and is profusely illustrated. Further might be mentioned Lanciani's various books on Roman excavations and discoveries. They are written in a popular and pleasing style, and are valuable additions to a classical library. On the Forum the latest and best authority is Hülsen's Das Forum Romanum, seine Geschichte und seine Denkmäler (Rome, 2d ed., 1005). It contains many maps and illustrations, and is late enough to include most of the remarkable discoveries of the past few years. An English translation by I. B. Carter has recently been published (Rome, 1006). A very attractive book, and one well within the range of young students is Lovell's Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum (New York, 1902). On the general subject of antiquities and illustrative material relating to Cicero we have an excellent work by J. Kubik, entitled Realerklärung und Anschauungs-Unterricht bei der Lektüre Ciceros (Vienna, 1806). The author's explanations and illustrations cover the following subjects: topography, existing buildings and ruins, private antiquities, public affairs, religion and mythology, military affairs, ethnography, ancient art, and portraiture. In this volume he covers the following orations: Pro Roscio, In Catilinam i-iv, De imperio Cn. Pompei, Pro Archia, Pro Milone, Pro Marcello, Pro Ligario,

Pro Deiotaro, Philippicae i-ii. It is a book that is sure to add materially to the effectiveness of classroom work.

The Germans have published a large number of excellent books of illustrations, usually with explanatory text, which throw a flood of light upon the interpretation of classical authors. They are usually very inexpensive in proportion to their educational value and add enormously to the interest of the class in what they are reading. Among the best-known are Öhler's Klassisches Bilderbuch (Leipzig, 1892); A. Schneider's Das alte Rom (Leipzig, 1906), containing 12 maps, 14 plans, and other illustrative material; E. Hula's Römische Altertümer (Leipzig, 1901), containing a map of Rome and 60 fine illustrations. For wall illustration the best tabulae are Cybulski's. A series on Rome numbered XVI–XX was published in 1904.

THE DATIVE WITH CERTAIN INTRANSITIVE VERBS

From time immemorial the schoolboy has conscientiously learned that "many verbs signifying to javor, help, please, trust (and their contraries), to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon and spare take the dative," and it seems somewhat like sacrilege to lay violent hands on this time-honored rule. But I am sure that every teacher of Latin composition will bear me out in saying that it is the perennial source of confusion and difficulty.

In the first place, having burdened his mind with a list of from four-teen to eighteen English verbs, the average student seems to have reached the limit of endurance for a single rule. Even though he may have noticed in passing that the statement begins "Many verbs," and that there are some exceptions, as a matter of fact these latter observations make little impression upon him. Ask for the rule, and in nine cases out of ten it will be given without the qualifying adjective "many." And, indeed, it does seem somewhat like adding insult to injury to ask a boy to learn this long list of verbs and then, when he has done so, to keep nagging him because the one verb of "aiding" with which he is familiar (iuvo) and a common verb of "injuring" (laedo) demand the accusative case.

The second count against the rule is even more damaging; namely, that the English verbs which appear in the list represent very imperfectly the meanings of the Latin verbs which the rule is designed to cover; in fact, in some cases at least, the English translation only serves to conceal the reason why the Latin verb is construed with the dative, and can hardly fail to leave the impression that, in some mysterious way, *ideas* which to the English mind are transitive appeared to the Roman as intransitive. How inexact and misleading the translations are may be clearly illustrated in the case of *opitulor* and *servio*, which are representatives of two different types of verb.

a) Opitulor is in sense a compound, containing within itself the notion of a transitive verb and its object. Such a conception of the meaning of the word must have been impressed upon the mind of the Roman by the fact that the phrase open ferre was in good use; e.g.:

Cic. Fam. v. 4. 2: Quodsi mihi tua clementia opem tuleris, omnibus in rebus me fore in tua potestate tibi confirmo.

¹ This factor is even more important than the *formal* derivation of the word in determining its current force.

Cic. Cat. iii. 8. 18: tum vero ita praesentes (sc. di immortales) his temporibus opem et auxilium nobis tulerunt ut eos paene oculis videre possemus.³

Suet. Galb. 20: Illud mirum admodum fuerit neque praesentium quemquam opem imperatori ferre conatum et.

The real meaning of opitulor was therefore something like "lend aid," and the reason for the accompanying dative is obvious.

b) Servio is a neuter verb, equivalent to a noun and the copula (servus+esse). The literal normal force of the word appears most clearly in early Latin; e.g.:

Plaut. Capt. 119, 120:

Omnes profecto *liberi* lubentius Sumus quam servimus.

Plaut. Mil. glor. 1356, 1357:

Et si ita sententia esset, tibi servire malui Multo quam alii libertus esse.

In both these passages the antithesis of *liber* (*libertus*) esse makes it perfectly evident that, for Plautus, servio was only another way of saying servus esse. Since therefore this verb signified "be a slave" or "be in bondage," the reason for the dative used with it is not far to seek. That this conception of the meaning of servio persisted down to classical times may be seen from the following passages:²

Cic. De orat. i. 52. 226: Potestne virtus, Crassus, servire ? quae et semper et sola libera est, quaeque, etiamsi corpora capta sint armis aut constricta vinculis, tamen suum ius alque libertatem tenere debeat.

Cic. Cleunt. 53. 146: Legum ministri (sc. sunt) magistratus . . . , legibus denique idcirco omnes servimus, ut liberi esse possimus.³

Cic. Phil. ii. 26. 64: Una in illa re servitutis oblita civitas ingemuit, servientibusque animis gemitus tamen populi Romani liber fuit.4

¹ Other Ciceronian examples are Verr. II. ii 3. 9 (opem auxiliumque ferretis), II. v. 57. 147 (opem et salutem tulit), Rab. Perd. 1. 3. (ferre opem), Sulla 29. 82(nihil adiumenti, nihil opis, nihil auxilii ferri), Arch. 1. 1 (opitulari opem et salutem ferre), Dom. 10. 27 (opem et auxilium tulisset), Lig. 10.30 (fer opem), Pill. ix. 1. 2 (opem ferre), Fin. ii. 35. 118 (opem salutemque ferres), Tusc. dis. iv. 20. 46 (ad opem ferendam), iv. 26. 56 (feras opem), Leg. ii. x1. 28 (ad opem ferendam), iii. 19. 43 (opem ferre). Cl. Auct. ad Her. iv. 27. 37, which shows a marked variety of expression (Nihil auxiliatae sunt, nihil opitulata est) and [Cic.] Pr. quam in exil. 7. 16 (opem non tuleritis).

A sympathetic appreciation of the force of such a verb as this is difficult for the English mind. For when the noun force stands out as it does here in the case of ervio, our present usage (unlike that of Anglo-Saxon) demands that the copula and a noun be used (e. g., "be a slave")—no simple verb conveys just this shade of thought. But Greek and Latin agree with Anglo-Saxon in including such conceptions within the field of meaning of simple verb forms; e. g., βασιλεύω with genitive—"be king (βασιλεύς) of," and δουλεύω with dative—"be a slave (δοῦλος) to."

³ The fundamental force of servio is so clear in this passage that inferior manuscripts alter the reading to legum . . . servi sumus.

⁴ So, with a reference to Caesar's unlimited power, Cicero says qui servire nolebant (Phil. ii. 14. 35) and, referring to the claims of the Triumvirs, neque iam, quominus serviamus, recusamus, (Att. ii. 18. 1). Again, the antithesis in a sentence like the following is illuminating; cum is, qui inperat aliis, servit ipse

The evidence therefore regarding opitulor and servio abundantly sustains the second charge brought against the rule, namely that, in some cases at least, the English verbs enumerated in the list provide translations so inexact that they actually obscure the reason for the use of the dative with the Latin verbs which the rule is designed to cover—thus involving in needless perplexity and misunderstanding a subject otherwise comparatively plain and simple. On this ground alone we might well question the utility of retaining the old rule; but when, in addition, it is noted (as above) that, considered as a mere mechanical formula, the rule breaks down in actual practice because of the important "exceptions" which the student fails to master, it would certainly seem that the time had come to introduce into our grammars a wholly different method of dealing with this subject.

The most simple and direct solution of the problem in hand would seem to be to substitute for the English translations a corresponding list of *Latin* verbs.² So far as length of list is concerned, the plan seems feasible enough; for, in one version of the old rule, the number of English verbs runs up to eighteen, and within that limit it is quite possible to include all the Latin verbs that the student frequently meets or cares to use. The revised rule might read somewhat as follows:

Note carefully that credo, faveo, fido, ignosco, impero, invideo, irascor, minor, noceo, opitulor, parco, pareo, persuadeo, placeo, resisto, servio, and suscenseo³ are intransitive verbs.

nulli cupiditati (Rep. i. 34. 52); cf. servis regnas (Phil. ii. 14. 35). Still again, an interesting parallel is afforded by alios gloriae servire (Tusc. dis. v. 3. 9) and multos libidinum servos (ibid. ii. 4. 12). Cf. also Cat. iv. 10. 22 (oppressi serviunt).

By a slight shift of the point of view, servio signifies "act as slave (to)," a shade of meaning that we lose through translating by the transitive verb "serve;" the Latin point of view is much better represented by "to minister (to);" e. g., Off. iii. 33. 117, Quam miser (sc. est) virtuitis famulalus servientis voluptati! Cicero is here speaking of the Epicurean doctrine that virtue is a good only as it leads to pleasure, and the sense is "How wretched the bondage of virtue ministering to pleasure!" Cf. Cat. i. 9. 23.

- ² The two verbs here chosen were selected because there chanced to be abundant material at hand. A study of other verbs would doubtless yield like results—some particularly look very simple, e. g., auxilior, comitor, familor, gratificor, irascor, moderor, morigeror, etc. No one seems to have taken the pains to work through the whole material carefully along these lines. It is a subject that ought to interest the teacher in the secondary school, and one might find it a profitable field of investigation. Mr. H. B. Dewing, late of the Berkeley (Cal.) High School, has undertaken a study of the subject in Plautus.
- *A less radical policy is followed in the grammars of Hale and Buck and of Lane, but in the presentation of the subject in these textbooks there is a recognition of the failings of the old rule, as is shown by the very careful and judicious wording of the English translations (H.-B., p. 191, n. 3; L. 1182). In one or two of the other grammars a half-hearted attempt is made in a subsequent note to undo the mischief caused by the old rule—an expedient poor at best, and especially ineffective here because, as above noted, the student's attention is fully centered on the list of English verbs he is required to memorize—this is the one thing he remembers; it may also be said truly that these added notes are not models of correct and clear statement. [In this connection it might be asked whether H.-B. 364. It is designed to imply that isvo, lacdo, etc., come under the heading of verbs of "quality, attitude, or relation;" as it stands, the statement seems likely to neutralize the good effect of the previously quoted reference.]
- ³ In a footnote there might be added a supplementary list of verbs thus construed, but which the student is likely to meet less frequently.

REMARK.—These are commonly rendered into English by the use of transitive verbs, thus obscuring the exact meaning of the Latin word; e. g., opitulor means, not "aid," but "lend aid" (cf. open ferre), and servio signifies "be in bondage" or "minister." When thus translated, the reason for the use of the dative with these verbs is obvious.

This simple change at once sweeps away the serious difficulties which beset the old rule. For (1) *iuvo*, *laedo*, etc., no longer appear as "exceptions"—in fact, they do not enter the discussion at all, they as well as their common English translations being transitive; and (2) the statement really explains the use of the dative with the Latin verbs instead of obscuring the reason for the employment of that case.

This method of presentation would also have the additional advantage that it discourages careless and inexact translation. Young students generally seem to rest back on the complacent conviction that it is always possible to find an English word that exactly covers the meaning of a Latin word (or vice versa), and that, having memorized these pairs of words one is fully equipped for successful translation. Of course, the student does not consciously reason all this out, but-and here I speak from sad experience—this is the line along which his mind works. Hence it is that we are confronted with such monstrosities as sum iens scribere ("I am going to write"), cives in corpore ("the citizens in a body"), and in hoc mucrone dixit ("he spoke on this point"). Even the more apt pupil will write umquam for semper in translating "he was ever the bravest among the warriors," the former word being his stock rendering for "ever;" and dum would often be written for autem in rendering into Latin "Catullus was a poet, while Horace was an artist." This tendency to pair off Latin and English words without careful discrimination is naturally even more marked when there is outward similarity of formas in the case of servio and "serve." The rule as revised would militate against such carelessness, showing as it does that, for instance, opitulor and "to aid" do not cover exactly the same field of meaning, and that "to serve" is by no means an exact synonym for servio.1

The method of setting forth the facts here proposed has therefore much to commend it. But, despite its advantages, there are perhaps some who would hesitate to cut loose from the old formula because of a lingering feeling that it may prove impossible to explain the use of the dative with all the verbs "of this class" (i. e., those which are commonly translated

³ Experience with successive classes of freshmen engaged in the study of Latin composition leads me to believe that it is at just this point that the secondary teacher commits one of the most serious and prevalent sins of omission, i. e., in not training the student to look for the exact sense, and in not continually showing him that real translation cannot be accomplished by mechanically pairing off one English word against one Latin word and throwing one into the breach whenever its fellow appears.

"favor, help, please, trust, etc.") in the same simple and satisfactory way found possible in the case of the two verbs treated above—that perhaps among the Latin verbs not yet considered there may be some, at any rate, whose dative can be understood only from the standpoint of comparative philology. At this stage of the investigation and with the scanty material at hand, I am not prepared to take up this question in all its aspects, but the following considerations readily suggest themselves:

- I. The existence of an Indo-European peculiarity calling for comparative treatment is not demonstrated by the mere fact that in Latin, Greek, and other related languages there are found construed with the dative verbs which are commonly rendered into English by "favor, help, please, trust, etc."—the apparent peculiarity may perhaps vanish when (as in the case of opitulor and servio) the exact force of the verbs is determined.
- 2. But granting, for the sake of argument, that we really have here to do with a peculiarity traceable to IE. inheritance, even a casual survey of the Latin and Greek verbs which the rule is designed to cover brings to light grave difficulties; for
- a) Scarcely any of these verbs are cognates—i. e., derived from the same root-word (the most generally conceded case seems to be that of fido and πείθομαι); whereas, if we were dealing with an inherited IE. peculiarity, such pairs of cognates ought to abound. On the contrary,
- b) Cognates are not always construed in the same way in the two languages (e. g., sequor with accusative and ἔπομαι with the dative); and
- c) Where the stem-meaning coincides there is often no etymological connection; e. g., servio (servus) and δουλεύω (δοῦλος), auxilior (auxilium) and βοηθέω (βοήθεια), irascor (ira) and ὀργίζομαι (ὀργή).

While these facts are hard to explain on the hypothesis of a peculiarity traceable to IE. inheritance, they are quite consistent with the assumption that the dative with these verbs stands upon its own footing in each of the languages concerned, and (since we can hardly suppose that these languages, developing independently, should have hit upon a common peculiarity so extensive and complicated) that the use of that case is simple and natural, and that it would so appear if we could determine exactly the point of view of the verb in each particular case.

3. Finally, the hypothesis of an IE. peculiarity calling for comparative treatment is virtually an assumption that a psychological change has taken place such that the selfsame *ideas* which to us are transitive appeared

² We should not, of course, deny the possibility that here and there a dative, once used normally, still persisted as a mere historical survival when conditions had so changed that another case would naturally be employed. Such sporadic survivals would hardly need to be regarded as exceptions to the principle above suggested—we sim have to go back a step further to find the reason for the use of the case.

to the Greek, Roman, or Anglo-Saxon mind as intransitive and suited to an indirect object. Such a state of affairs is scarcely comprehensible. It is infinitely simpler to suppose that we do not in every case comprehend exactly the point of view of the Greek, Latin, or Anglo-Saxon verb.

These three considerations do not, of course, comprise all that might be said on the subject, but they will perhaps serve to show that it is not impossible that the dative with verbs commonly translated "to favor, help, please, trust, etc," needs no elucidation from the standpoint of an assumed IE. peculiarity. That it certainly does not with some verbs has been shown in the earlier part of this paper, and the remote possibility that such elucidation may ultimately be required in a few cases should not outweigh the several marked advantages of the above proposed revision of the old rule. Pedagogically considered it is far in advance of the old formula, and—mea quidem sententia—it rests on a far firmer foundation.

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¹ Should a few such cases be found, a mention of that fact in the Remark or in a footnote would meet all the needs of the situation,

THE PHILOLOGICAL BENEFIT OF ELEMENTARY SANSKRIT¹

This is an era of discussion concerning simple and simplified spelling and phonetic alphabets. Surely then it is à propos to speak a word in behalf of Sanskrit. The spelling in this language followed the pronunciation so exactly that the texts indicate even the changes at the end of words in sentence-combination, and its alphabet is an unparalleled marvel of phonetic correctness.

This fact, however, becomes most impressed upon us when we study Sanskrit for its own sake; and the intrinsic value of the language needs no argument in its behalf. I wish instead to emphasize the advantage, from a philological standpoint, of even a very slight knowledge of Sanskrit, for it is in such a connection that a foundation in comparative philology is best secured. In the study of Latin and of Greek one must attain proficiency in reading, and an understanding of style and syntax. Likewise, a keen appreciation of the content is due the languages of the two races which have contributed so much to our civilization. Gothic is the third and only other primitive representative of the Indo-European family that is often studied. It is valuable for the light it sheds upon the later Germanic languages. Hence its relation to the other members of the Indo-European family and to the conjectural prehistoric language receives less emphasis.

Turning now to Sanskrit, we find it an excellent basis for a general comparative study. Through this medium can be attained a genuine understanding of Indo-European forms and relationships, and of the nature and working of phonetic laws. Such knowledge should not be reserved for the graduate student alone, nor, as was pointed out a moment ago, is there room for it in the crowded subjects of Latin, Greek, or Gothic, even though the orientation of their word-forms and grammatical systems, as gained through the aid of Sanskrit, is most interesting and helpful.

In passing, it may be well to recall that the books for beginning Sanskrit are admirably arranged for those students who do not wish to become Sanskritists. Whitney's *Grammar* quotes every form in both the Sanskrit and the transliterated alphabet, and Lanman's *Reader* has copious notes and a very clear vocabulary in which cognate forms are given a prominent place. Thus a fair acquaintance with the elements of Sanskrit may be

¹ Read before the Modern Language Association of Ohio, Springfield, O., December 1, 1906.

gained by private study, and a teacher with such an equipment has obvious opportunity to use it well. Even if one hesitates to attempt learning the Sanskrit or *Devanāgarī* letters, the time will be well spent if all the grammatical and philological knowledge to be obtained through the two pages given in transliteration in the *Reader* is mastered.

By virtue of its transmission to us in a very early state, Sanskrit shows a primitive condition that is exceedingly illuminating. It retains a great fulness of conjugational and declensional forms, and in many other points approaches more closely to Indo-European conditions than do any of its sister-languages. This becomes evident upon an examination of caseendings and case-uses in Sanskrit, as compared with the three other languages mentioned, for instance, or a comparison of verbal endings, or of consonant changes. Therefore it is through Sanskrit that the attention of students is best drawn to conjugational and declensional systems, to formative affixes, and to sound-changes, in such fashion that a real conception of the theoretical Indo-European language is grasped. At this point a tabulation of the Aryan family is fraught with meaning, and the student understands the ancestry, which he already knew partially and vaguely, of the more important modern languages. It is noted that certain prominent modern languages are of other than Indo-European extraction, and this fundamental difference causes the line between Aryan and non-Aryan families to be clearly perceived.

The chief correspondences of the four principal Indo-European languages—Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and Germanic—and certain equally interesting differences, should be gradually pointed out to the beginner in Sanskrit. Thus he will not only see what is primitive in them, but will also appreciate later developments. He will come to understand individual and independent change and growth, and become able to follow the traces of fusion in form and function. Thus the present condition of each language becomes more intelligible, and light is shed upon their evolution. When considering the modern languages, the student of French will not be satisfied with a return to Latin alone, nor will the Germanic student unconsciously make the similar assumption that Gothic is his Ultima Thule.

The beginner in Sanskrit meets with Grimm's law as a practical reality. He translates but a few words or a few lines for each lesson. Then he comes to understand these words syllable by syllable and letter by letter. He connects them understandingly with their cognates, and sees wherein they correspond, wherein they differ, and how these facts are deduced. He recognizes the workings of phonetic law in every word he meets, as

well as in the set columns of examples which he tried to memorize as a thing apart when he learned the columns of letters that constitute Grimm's law.

The first translation usually attempted is the Nala story, a poetic episode from the great epic, the Mahābhārata. It may be of interest to test it, by considering the first line, starting with the Asid raja nalo nama, which is the arma virumque cano of the Sanskritist. In connection with āsīd may be pointed out the close relationship of the verb "to be," especially in the present tense, through the Indo-European languages, and that it differs from the general systems to such an extent that its conjugation is given separately in the grammars. If the student is already familiar with Greek, the augment may be briefly explained. The personal endings may be recalled, and the apparently anomalous &- in the Sanskrit root permits an allusion to the interesting fact of the fusion in this language of IE. &, &, &. The next word is already familiar through our borrowed word rajah. Hence it is doubly interesting to trace back to its original form the Latin rex, with our English regal, the Gothic reiks, borrowed from Celtic and appearing in our own language in rich, and bishop-ric, through the Anglo-Saxon. This word serves also to illustrate the development of palatals, upon which basis the division into centum and satam languages is made, and a description of the law may be given.

Thus the details lead in each case to interesting generalizations, for each word that will be considered shows something new, or emphasizes a fact already grasped. And correct generalization is an aim of every student.

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SECOND-YEAR LATIN COMPOSITION

The high-school course in Latin composition, as it is furnished by the books in common use, is open to some very serious objections. By far the most serious of these, as it appears to the writer, is the division of the four-year course into two periods of one and three years respectively. For as things are at present the elementary book, in which something like half the time is given to translating from English into Latin, is practically a one-year course, while the book in composition usually covers the remaining three years. So far as the systematic organization of these two courses is concerned, each is a whole within itself and independent of the other, covering its own ground by methods of its own and with a vocabulary selected for its own purposes. As a rule, the composition book may be said to be based on the work of the first year only to the extent that it presupposes a knowledge of the inflections. The two books are, in fact, planned without any detailed reference to each other whatever.

The seriousness of the situation becomes apparent when we stop to realize clearly the position of a pupil who is studying Latin, at the time when the change of books is made. He has gone over a good deal of ground in his first year, the first half of which he has probably mastered with some thoroughness. In the second half, roughly speaking, he has not yet had sufficient practice, the grammatical points are not clear, and he is not very sure of the words; for some of this matter was presented to him for the first time just before the end of the school year. Since then he has had his summer vacation, which has made this knowledge still less sure. For his reading he is now put into Caesar, before new material, and amid new conditions, where to a considerable extent the methods that were found sufficient to master the Latin exercises of the year before will no longer avail. The great need of the situation is clearly some connecting link, some continuation of work that deals with the old material in the old way, which will not only make him feel at home, but will be the surest means of getting back, through the force of association, whatever knowledge and ability he may once have possessed. The reading is new, the teacher may be new, and the new term makes even old things look strange enough. These things cannot be helped, perhaps. But the book in composition is within our power, and here at least the pupil should be made to feel that he has an old and familiar, if not an especially dear, friend.

Then, as we have just said, the latter half of the first year's grammar and vocabulary is by no means fixed, and it would seem to be the part of wisdom to see that it is fixed, before an attempt is made to go on to something new or different. Naturally this can best be done by taking the status of the pupil's advancement carefully into account in all its details, and by continuing to work for some time by the old method, dealing with the things already learned and adding new ones from time to time. It is certainly a pernicious proceeding to cut the thread of the first year's work with all its unformed strands, and to start recklessly spinning a new one in a different way and of different material. It practically means the loss, in large part, of an unassimilated half-year's work, which might have been secured with a minimum of added labor.

The only reasoning that can justify a sudden change like that which we make at present is that it is not a good thing to get into a rut, and that it broadens and strengthens one's knowledge to approach the same matter from different sides and in different ways. But whatever force the argument has is lost in the present case. For it presupposes a "rut," a fixed habit of thought so strong that it needs to be overcome to make further progress possible. The real state of things is the direct opposite of this. Fixed habits of thought, the ready movement of the pupil's mind along certain definite lines that lead him correctly from one language to the other, is exactly what we labor to produce in the early study of a foreign language. And surely everyone will agree that these habits of mind have not, in the case of the immature pupil in Latin, become so fixed at the end of one year that they can withstand the confusing effect of a sudden change. Let any teacher ask himself how clear a notion of grammatical structure the average high-school pupil has at the end of a year's work, and then estimate the effect which this revolution in methods must have on his mind. For he is now referred to the grammar to grope among the fine and coarse print for his rules, which he finds no longer stated in the same way as before, constructions are not treated in the same relation as they were, and the illustrations themselves are often meaningless with their strange, new words and peculiar order. Countless readjustments need to be made, which can be successful only when the matter has become familiar enough to be handled with some confidence. If such a change is desirable at all, surely the end of the first year's work is not the time for it. We have a useful lesson to learn from the practice which prevails in Europe of publishing elementary exercise-books in a series covering several years, with each book based closely upon the preceding one.

Another serious defect of those books which are based on the grammar

is that the authors think it necessary to cover all the rules of syntax, even those which have already been adequately treated in the first year's work, while at the same time they neglect with equal assurance to pay any attention whatever to forms. The division into forms for the first, and syntax for the following years, is too simple to be considered for a moment by any thinking person. That is not the way a language is acquired, nor the way in which the mind can make progress. It would be just as reasonable to expect a child to acquire all his knowledge by the sense of sight one year, and all the sounds in the next. Some things in syntax can be, and are, learned thoroughly in the first year, while certain forms, on the other hand, just as certainly need additional systematic attention in the second. And no good reason can be given why the book in composition intended for the second year's work should waste time on the former and refuse to give it to the latter.

The division of the subject in books of this sort is generally quite artificial and mechanical, while at the same time they cover too many details of the grammar without sufficient distinction as to importance, difficulty, or previous condition of the pupil's knowledge. The whole gerund and gerundive, for example, all the uses of the dative or the ablative, are dispatched in a single lump and then dismissed from the mind. All this is contrary to a fundamental principle of teaching, so well known as hardly to need statement—that it is the repeated dealing with a topic at intervals, which gives it a chance to form lasting associations with the knowledge already acquired, that is most certain to bring results. The latter method would at the same time give a chance for an effective review of those uses of a case, for example, which had been treated at some previous time.

Objection must be raised still further to the practice, adopted by many books in recent years, of basing all the composition exercises upon sections of the Latin text for their vocabulary. To do this as early as the beginning of the second year is, in the writer's opinion, a dangerous practice. With the average pupil at that stage, especially after his long vacation, the principles of change in the inflections of the various classes of words are very far from being a fixed habit of mind. He has hardly had practice enough, for example, to know instinctively that an ablative in -ine comes from a nominative in -o, though he may know by heart that a nominative in -o has an ablative in -ine. In other words, he is now required to reason backward as well as forward, in order to obtain a certain form of a word, of which a different form is found in the text. It is much harder to get the right form than it was in the first year, when the start was always made

from the nominative singular and the first person of the present. At the same time it is much easier to get the word itself, for the pupil has only to go to yesterday's chapter in the text to find it. The hard worker, whose habits of thought are accurate and conscientious, will still get his results. But the one who is inclined to take it easy will be strongly impressed only by the ease of finding the word, and will readily allow this action to set his standard for the whole work of composition. As a result he naturally falls into that slipshod, dawdling way of dealing with the subject which can do so much to bring the earnest teacher to the verge of despair.

It would be far better to work, as in the first year, with a selected vocabulary containing words which occur most frequently in Caesar or Nepos, as the case may be. This is emphatically true of the first part of the second year, when a determined effort has to be made, as in the case of the grammar, to recover and definitely fix what was but imperfectly acquired in the first year. Such a vocabulary, well learned, will be of immeasurably greater benefit for the reading of the author, and for every other purpose, than the vague and often false impressions which the pupil gets from transferring random words from the text. In the latter part of the second year an attempt might then be made to begin basing the exercises directly on sections of the author himself. By this time the pupil may be familiar enough with the style and general manner of Caesar, to make it possible for him to imitate his peculiarities with some insight and success.

But even when the change is thus delayed, it must still be made carefully and without breaking away from the vocabulary and grammar of the preceding year and a half. For it should never be forgotten that this early stage of translating from English into the foreign language is the time of golden opportunity for acquiring a high standard of thoroughness in matters of vocabulary, as well as of grammar—an opportunity which, if neglected then, will never return.

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Potes

Contributions in the form of notes or discussions should be sent to Campbell Bonner, 1512 1/2 Demonbreun Street, Nashville, Tenn.

AN ENLARGED PLATFORM

One plank in Professor Goodell's platform¹ is of itself worthy of expansion into a platform, viz.: "No one is fit to teach beginners who has not read widely. If you are teaching Xenophon and have not read through the Anabasis, Cyropaedia, and Memorabilia, read them at once; if you have not read the Odyssey and Iliad through, read them next. And so on." Excellent. And let us add: Still less is one fit to teach college and university students, if he has not read very widely, and has not a grasp of the whole field of Greek literature. And yet the beginners in Greek are regularly and almost universally put in charge of teachers who have not read widely because of youthfulness or lack of opportunity. The specialists who occupy Greek chairs in our colleges and universities have experienced the same lack of opportunity for wide reading.

Concerning this lack of opportunity and the shortcomings of colleges and universities in relation to it, a word needs to be said. The teachers of beginners are usually college graduates or at least college-bred. They follow the ideals and carry out the ideas which they have been taught, until they find something better and more practical. Not much attention has been given in the colleges and universities to the training and equipment of those who are to teach beginning Greek. Yet most college graduates who teach Greek at all, when they begin to teach, will be called upon to teach beginners. It is true that courses for teachers of Greek are occasionally offered by some institutions, but these courses rarely have for their object the wider reading of the Greek authors usually taught to beginners. Why, however, should not Xenophon and Homer be read more extensively by graduate students who are preparing to teach Greek? Are the universities doing all that should be done to encourage the reading of these authors? The prospective teacher would be greatly helped by a year's reading of Homer under the direction of an instructor who has read all Homer and much other epic literature, and who has studied the

[&]quot;Our Problem and a Platform," Classical Journal, November, 1906.

Homeric age and other epochs that have similarities in mediaeval and modern times. But Homer is rarely read in this way in our colleges and universities.

Graduate students are expected to read intensively fragmentary portions of Greek authors, and to know the opinions of the great authorities upon the portions read. Some minute topic of interest to the instructor may be encountered and this may lead to a doctor's thesis in which the views of the instructor are carried out by the student. This production usually consumes about two years of the student's time, and, on completion, when the young doctor enters upon the work of instruction, he finds that he cannot use in his classes that addition to the sum of human knowledge which has been made by his two years' work. About two-thirds of the graduate student's time is thus consumed, to prove to the satisfaction of the instructor and department concerned that the student can do original work. He is then branded "Ph. D.," and turned loose to browse for himself. Is this the best that can be done for him?

For a long time it has been a common and pernicious notion that anybody can teach Greek. So long as the instruction consisted simply in directing a body of students in the translation of a fragmentary portion of a Greek author, together with the proper labeling of various genitives, datives, subjunctives, optatives, etc., and some metres in the case of the poets, truly anybody could teach Greek. And just because so many did this, and nothing more, is one reason why there is a Greek problem today. The teacher who is original requires the same qualities as the investigator and in greater measure, because the field in which he works is usually larger and because he works with vivacious youths instead of cloistered pedants. Accurate knowledge, keen powers of observation, discriminating judgment, logical reasoning, minute analysis, wide synthesis, broad training, extensive reading, a vivid imagination, and common-sense are required of the investigator. The teacher who surveys the field of Greek literature, explains and interprets it in comparison with other literature, and emphasizes those things in it which are vital at the present time so as to edify the youths of today and thus convince them that there is still something practical for them in the study of Greek, needs all the powers of the investigator, and in addition, the energy and enthusiasm of a Harper.

Both in the teaching of Greek and preparation for that teaching, emphasis has long been placed on the microscopic view. The present crisis demands emphasis upon the telescopic. It is a long stretch in time from ancient Greece to the present—so long that the foes of Greek study say that there is little for us in that bygone age. With telescopic,

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as well as microscopic, vision, the teacher who makes Greek literature live will range the various fields of Greek literature and life as with a searchlight, not forgetting to search as carefully that which intervenes between us and that distant past. No one is fitted to teach Greek literature who has not read it widely and who does not know the history as well as the literature of at least the great epochs since the days of ancient Greece. Here is a large field for any investigator. The eyes of college and graduate students have not been directed to it so much as they should. It will take years to cover it, and the sooner the graduate student begins, the better. In his college course and the three years of his graduate course a good beginning might be made in extensive reading. But he will not make the start without the example and encouragement of an instructor. The tasks set for the student should be such as to require and induce wide reading of literature. They need not be such as have never been investigated before. A mind capable of investigating may look at an old subject differently and may not reach the same conclusions as predecessors. Every generation interprets the past, whether literature or life, for itself, so there is no reason why topics repeatedly examined should not be examined anew. The same mental powers are called into action. The important thing is that graduate work should be such as to encourage wide reading of Greek literature, and other literature, and history, if our subject is to live and thrive in college curricula.

But can the lost art of reading Greek literature be rediscovered and revived at this late day? At least some steps may be taken in this direction. The pace may be set by the professors themselves, and the students may be subsidized to do likewise by making the rewards for extensive reading greater. Extensive reading should be deemed at least as great an honor and should be rewarded as much as the discovery of an atom of knowledge unknown before. To examine a large subject in a large way calls for the exercise of as much mental acumen as to examine a minute subject in a minute way. A mountain is quite as difficult to explore as a molehill. It is originality of mind and method that will tell in either case, and applied to the great body of Greek literature may lead to original results of great value. Specialization in the large matters of literature and life would help to revive the study of Greek. Reform in this study may be brought about by its friends, if they will; but if they will not, the enemy will ruthlessly trample the study of Greek under foot.

C. F. CASTLE

SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE DISCIPLINARY VALUE OF TRANSLATING

Professor Goodell, in an address ("Our Problem, and a Platform") printed in a recent number of the Classical Journal (II. 1), has unduly minimized, it seems to me, the value of "intellectual gymnastics." I cannot agree with him that our most effective studies for a liberal education are those which "go farthest in explaining our civilization and showing how it has come to be what it is, and those that most effectively familiarize the student with the conceptions that lie at the basis of it, and are most dynamic in it." There is no place for the work of translating in this category. Translating is unique in that it is of a purely disciplinary character. It does not supply a fund of information; but pre-eminently above science, history, or even literature, it contributes to personal culture. It supplies a need where other experiments—shall I say?—have absolutely failed. Such at least is the opinion of Professor Friedrich Paulsen, of Berlin, who has recently made a strong assertion as to the failure of practical education to vindicate its cultural claim. "Science," he says, "reveals a mass of facts, some sure, others forever doubtful. It neither satisfies fully our desire for knowledge nor our yearning for personal culture."

The translator enters upon a task very similar to that of the painter. The choosing and testing that a master gives to his colors before they reproduce, even imperfectly, the hues and shades of the landscape, is the same process which the translator employs in his deliberate choice of words and in his arrangement of sentences to reproduce the feeling, the spirit, and the force of the original.

Let me speak a word of warning against the use of special dictionaries. The disciplinary value in the judicious selection of words is, I maintain, seriously diminished if the student is encouraged to search the pages of a lexicon for the most suitable meaning which the context demands. The process is almost as stultifying as the use of a ready-made translation, since the selection is not one the student has evolved from his own mind. Mental training depends solely on his thorough understanding of the root-meaning of the word, on his appreciation of suffix-signification, and on his judicious development from such a stalk of the idea which blossoms into the full life of its environment.

Is there not a mental discipline here which makes translation supremely a culture-study? A constant judicious choice, a clear discrimination, a careful precision, a casting-about for the exact English term, all this leads

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to that habit of accuracy and refinement which will sooner or later be crystallized into character.

When we leave individual word-study and advance to the metamorphosis of the spirit and force of the finished sentence, we are confronted with a problem indeed serious and perplexing. We may render the idea but this is not translation. Translation, in the first place, demands that we unfold the thought in the order in which it was unfolded to the native mind, in so far as the difference of idiom between the two languages permits. My eve falls on Euripides, Alcestis 42, φίλου γὰρ ἀνδρὸς συμφοραῖς βαρύνομαι. I doubt not the majority of students will render: "I am weighed down by the sorrows of my friend." Yet is not such a translation an absolute violation of the principle here laid down? To the Greek mind the appreciation of the evolution of the idea was directly reverse. The caesural pause tended to separate φίλου γὰρ ἀνδρός from what follows. Should we not bring out the thought-evolution if we render: "He is a man I love, and his sorrows distress me?" Again, some lines farther I note κλαίει γ' ἄκοιτιν ἐν χεροῖν φίλην ἔχων. Here the student naturally translates: "He weeps, holding his dear wife in his hands;" whereas faithfulness to the Greek unfolding of the thought requires: "Yes, he weeps for his wife, and in his arms he holds her dear form." These two examples are chosen at random, but they illustrate, I believe, a very important principle.

Even in so obvious a demand upon the translator as the reproduction of forceful position, the reader will agree that, while the student is doubtless instructed to observe emphasis, yet he will seldom or never put this rule into practice. The emphatic position is forgotten in his effort to reproduce the bald idea of the sentence. As Cauer says:

[Die Schüler] achten mehr auf das syntaktische Verhältniss der Worte als auf ihre künstlerische Gruppierung und übersetzen Citus modo modo tardus progressus (Sallust Cat. 15. 5) "sein Schritt bald schnell bald langsam" anstatt "schnell bald bald langsam sein Schritt."

The teacher must unfailingly hold his pupils rigidly responsible for this task. Such long ago was Cicero's rule; non verbum pro verbo necesse habui reddere, sed genus omne verborum vimque servavi, which we may formulate today as follows: The reproduction of the force, the feeling, the thought-evolution, is the primary object of the translator's art, the conservation of construction but secondary.

The preservation of collocation, antithesis, figurae etymologicae, and all the other rhetorical devices must be observed before a rendering becomes in any sense a translation. A difficult process? Yes, and it is because it

is so difficult that the translator through the universal law of struggle becomes a skilled artist. Exact and faithful translation is an ideal which constant practice enables us to approximate. Can even the adherents of "practical" education deny that this training involves the very process which leads the student to that acquirement of nicety and delicacy of diction so essential to his life on those many occasions when he endeavors to express a mental concept with elegance, precision, accuracy, and power? Quintilian recognized this when he said: "The exercise of translating Greek into Latin was regarded by our ancient orators as most profitable." Thus Pliny also: "It brings taste and discretion which impart exactness and brilliancy of phraseology."

For many years other experiments have been tested. Substitutes for the classics have found their way into the curriculum of our colleges. Has the result been satisfactory? Professor Williams, of the Engineering Department of the University of Michigan, confesses to the lack of nicety of diction among engineering students, occasioned by their deficient training in the classics.

There is nothing in which engineers today are so lacking as in ability to express their thoughts; and there is nothing that will so surely give one such ability as the translation from a foreign tongue; and the more delicate is the distinction of meaning in different foreign constructions, the better it is for the student.

The verdict of Charles Francis Adams in his address (Columbia University Quarterly VIII. 4) before the Phi Beta Kappa of Columbia a few months ago may be styled almost a recantation by the pioneer of "practical" education. He honestly and courageously expresses his firm conviction that the culture-training in the study of the classics is of a kind which cannot be found in any other department of instruction.

I would prescribe one of the classic tongues as a compulsory study to the day of graduation, the one royal road to a knowledge of all that is finest in letters and in art.

H. C. TOLMAN

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY

Reports from the Classical Field

It is the purpose of this department to keep the readers of the Journal informed of events and undertakings in the classical field, and to make them familiar with the varying conditions under which classical work is being done, and with the aims and experience of those who are in one way or another endeavoring to increase its effectiveness. The success of the department will naturally depend to a great extent on the co-operation of the individual readers themselves. Every one interested in the Journal and in what it is trying to do is therefore cordially invited to report anything of interest that may come to his notice. Inquiries and suggestions will also be useful in directing the attention of the editors to things which may otherwise escape their notice. Communications should be addressed to J. J. Schlicher, 1811 N. Eighth Street, Terre Haute, Ind.

Greek Dramatic Performances at the University of California.—The Greek department of the University of California is making preparations for the presentation of the Eumenides in the Greek Theater on April 18. The students who are to take part have been given a course of training during the year in the Greek drama, for which university credit will be given. The course is under the direction of Professor J. T. Allen and Dr. I. M. Linforth. The department hopes to make this course a permanent feature of the work in Greek, and thus to provide for the production of a play at stated intervals.

The Greek Theater at the University of California.—The Hearst Greek Theater is not an architectural curiosity, fit only to amuse the traveler, but a beautiful and inspiring structure, which serves a useful purpose and already has a large place in the hearts of those who live about San Francisco Bay. It is located at the highest part of the campus, in a depression in the hillside, where formerly the students sat on the ground and watched the dramatic performances of their classmates on a temporary stage after the primitive Greek and Roman fashion. This hollow formed by nature was perfected by excavating and filling until it had the desired shape. Within it, by the help of wooden molds which were built for the purpose, the stage and the semicircular seats for the audience were constructed out of concrete.

The stage is larger in proportion to the theater than the Greek stage was. It is inclosed at the rear and the ends by a wall, which rises somewhat higher than the topmost step of the auditorium. At the height of about seven feet the wall is cut back, and on the stylobate thus formed rests a row of engaged columns of the Doric order, which support the simple entablature. The frieze of this consists of triglyphs alternating with shields. The rear wall has one large doorway and two small ones, and each of the side walls has one. Without intent to do so the actors follow the primitive custom of dressing and waiting for their parts in tents at the rear of the stage wall, since permanent dressing-rooms have not yet been provided.

The orchestra has its ancient Greek form, that of a level circle between the lowest step and the stage. It is paved with gravel in order to prevent damage to it when the students, on the occasion of a rally, build a bonfire there. At present the stage is entirely separated from the auditorium by uncovered passages (parodoi), which form the easiest entrances to the lower part of the theater. The lower steps just above the orchestra are not used as seats, but chairs are placed on them. They are so broad and low that the slope of this part of the theater is gentle. About half way from the orchestra to the top of the auditorium, following the curve of the steps, is a broad aisle, and just above it is a low wall (praecinctio). Above this the slope is much steeper, and the steps are high enough to make a seat and just wide enough to leave room for a person to walk behind the ones who are sitting. There is no support for the spectator's back. This upper half of the auditorium is divided into wedge-shaped sections by stairways whose steps are half as high as the seats.

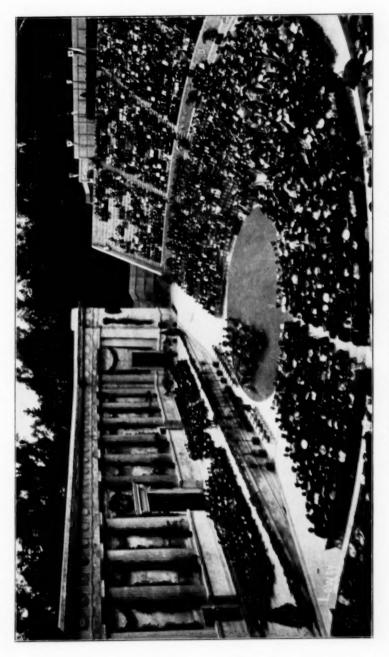
Compared with the theaters of the ancients this would rank as one of average size. It seats between 7,000 and 8,000 comfortably. When the stage, orchestra, and wooden benches built above the theater proper are used, there is room for about 10,000. The diameter of the outer circle is 250 feet, of the orchestra, 50 feet. The stage is 150 feet long and 28 feet wide and its wall is 42 feet high.

The structure is not yet complete. The architect's plan includes a covered gallery above and back of the auditorium, and a colonnade above the stage wall, and the union of these two parts of the building by a wall. Hence at present the spectators lack one thing which the ancients enjoyed, a place to go when it rains.

The theater has been found well adapted to modern uses, and except for the production of certain forms of music, it is superior to those in common use.—
C. J. O'CONNOR.

State Meetings in New England.—Sectional meetings under the auspices of the Classical Association of New England have been held in New Hampshire (Manchester High School, February 16) and western Massachusetts (Greenfield, December 8). At each meeting about fifty were present, and a committee was appointed to arrange for an organization and for the next meeting. Five papers were read at each place, among which were the following: "Quality vs. Quantity in Preparatory Classics," (Miss Small, Mt. Holyoke College), "The Study of Greek Tragedy" (Professor Smith, Amherst), "Classical Training and Modern Citizenship" (Professor Wild, Williams), "The Question of the Maintenance of Greek in the Schools" (Professor Adams, Dartmouth), "How to teach the Art of Translating" (Professor Burton, Dartmouth).

The Michigan Classical Conference.—The Thirteenth Michigan Classical Conference was held at the University of Michigan, March 27 and 28. At the first session, besides several papers on subjects of interest to classical teachers, the programme included a lecture by Professor F. W. Shipley, of Washington University, St. Louis, on "The Roman Camp of Saalburg: Its Remains and



GREEK THEATER, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA



Its Restoration." In the afternoon of the first day there was a symposium on "The Value of Humanistic Studies as a Preparation for the Study of Law;" the opening address was given by Merritt Starr, Esquire, of the Chicago bar. In the evening Professor Gordon J. Laing, of the University of Chicago, gave an illustrated lecture on "The Art of Ancient Etruria."

The principal subject of discussion at the session of the second afternoon was "Should Our High-School Courses in Latin Be Extended Downward into the Seventh and Eighth Grades?" Papers were presented by Dean Andrew F. West, of Princeton University, and Professor Allen S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; the general discussion following the papers was opened by Superintendent J. Stanley Brown, of Joliet, Ill., and Principal Webster Cook, of Saginaw, Mich.

The Latin Club of New York City.—This club, composed of 150 classical instructors in the high schools, academies, colleges, and universities of New York and vicinity is now in its seventh year. It holds three luncheons each year, at each of which some classical man of prominence is invited to give an address on a topic of common interest, which is then discussed by the members. Among those who have given the addresses in the past are Professors Tracy Peck, Hale, Bennett, Morgan, Rolfe, B. L. D'Ooge, Ashmore, and K. F. Smith. The papers at the first two luncheons of the present year were by Professor J. E. Barss (November 10) on "Latin Composition," and by Professor Charles G. Fenwick (February 9) on "The Teaching of Latin in St. François Xavier College."

These papers and discussions, as well as other articles of a similar nature, are published in the Latin Leaflet, a four-page weekly which is the organ of the club. The purpose of the Leaflet is "to provide a clearing-house for secondary teachers in New York and vicinity, or anywhere else; to afford an opportunity to younger classical teachers anywhere for the publication of their more modest endeavors along the line of original work, which might not otherwise see the light; to stimulate the teaching and quicken the student activity in the work in the high schools of Greater New York." Of the subscription price of fifty cents one-half goes to raise a fund for "one or more college entrance scholarships," which the club is establishing, and for which about \$5,000 are now in the treasury. The editor-in-chief is Dr. David H. Holmes, 179 Marcy Ave., Brooklyn.

University of Michigan.—The work in general linguistics formerly conducted by Professor George Hempl (who now occupies the chair of Germanics at Stanford University) has been transferred to Dr. C. L. Meader, whose title has been changed to assistant professor of Latin, Sanskrit, and general linguistics.

Dr. Charles B. Newcomer, instructor in Greek and Latin, has been appointed instructor in Greek and Latin at the George Washington University.

The English and Scotch Associations.—The plans of the English Classical Association include arrangements for an excursion to Italy during the Easter vacation. Admission to the party is to be confined to members of the associa-

tion and their families. The tour of two weeks from London to Naples and return, including board and lodging on the way, is sixteen guineas. A summer tour for the members of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South would cost rather more, but might be worth considering.

The membership of the English association is 1,150; secretaries: Professor E. A. Sonnenschein, 7 Barnsley Road, Edgbaston, Birmingham, and Mr. E. Harrison, M. A., Trinity College, Cambridge.

The Classical Association of Scotland has 300 members. Its secretary is Mr. William Lobban, M.A., High School for Girls, Glasgow.

Recent Literary Finds in Egypt.—The report of the work done by the Egypt Exploration Fund in the season 1905-6 shows an unusually large number of important finds in the department of Greek literature. The discoveries include the remains of two libraries, the papyrus as usual having been torn up before it was thrown upon the rubbish heap. Only half of the pieces have been deciphered, but among these are thirteen columns of fifteen lines each containing paeans of Pindar. All the fragments of his paeans which were extant before this amounted to only about a dozen lines There are further about a hundred complete, or nearly complete, lines of the lost Hypsipyle of Euripides, twentysix columns of the Symposium of Plato, a leaf from Sallust's Catiline, a piece of the lost Greek original of the Acts of Peter, another of an unknown version of the Acts of John, and especially forty-five lines on vellum of a lost gospel, of striking interest. By far the most important discovery is a fragment of fourteen columns of about forty lines each, and several parts of columns, belonging to a new history of Greece. The period covered by the fragment is from 306 to 394 B. C., and the quantity of information which it contains that is not found in Xenophon or Diodorus, is considerable. Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt are inclined to assign the work to Cratippus, who is said to have continued the history of Thucydides.

A Classical Nestor.—Three years ago on the 22d of December, the professors and students of those colleges of Kentucky University that were then in session gathered to a joint meeting in the old chapel of Transylvania University. The occasion of their meeting was the eightieth anniversary of the birth of Professor Charles Louis Loos, LL.D., who then held, and still holds, the chair of Greek in this institution. He may well be honored, not only by his own colleagues and students, but by classical teachers and students everywhere, as the Nestor of their profession.

Professor Loos was the second of five children of a French father and a Bavarian mother, and was reared in the use of two languages, near the boundary of France and Germany, until he came to the United States in his eleventh year, when he began the acquisition of a third. To this fact he attributes that love of languages and literature which has been his ever since his college days. By the death of his father he was early thrown on his own resources. In his six-

teenth year he went to Canton, O., to take an examination for a county certificate. Almost simultaneously with the beginning of his career as an educator he commenced that Christian activity which, as a preacher of the gospel and as editor of or contributor to religious periodicals, he has kept up ever since.

Entering Bethany College, W. Va., in 1842, at the beginning of its second session, he continued there until he was graduated in 1846. His work as a teacher of the classic languages began at once in the preparatory school of the college, where he taught for three years.

In 1880 he became president of Kentucky University. His incumbency of that place was terminated by his second resignation of it in 1897, since which time he has retained the professorship of Greek. None, however, of the places he has filled in church or college has been more congenial to his deeply religious nature than was the presidency of the Foreign Christian Missionary Society, which he held by successive annual elections through the eleven years that ended with 1900.

Quartum ago annum et octogesimum; and though, like Cato at that age, Professor Loos cannot make Cyrus' boast of youthful strength not noticeably impaired by age, he yet teaches fourteen hours a week, writes for the Christian Standard, preaches, and lectures. His life is at once an example and an inspiration to his students and to all who know him.—A. R. MILLIGAN.

Book Reviews

A Short History of Rome. By Frank Frost Abbott. With Handbook for the Study of Roman History. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1906. Pp. 304. \$1. (Teacher's Handbook, pp. 48, \$0.25.)

Teachers of Roman history rejoice that the elementary handbooks no longer close with the establishment of the empire, but, on the other hand, such subjects as the development of the monastic system, the Moorish invasion of Europe, and Charlemagne's empire are such a far cry from things essentially Roman that one cannot but wish they might begin mediaeval history rather than close that of Rome, the Historical Associations to the contrary notwithstanding.

Professor Abbott's book is evidently designed primarily for use in secondary schools. In certain matters of style, in the desire to be vivid and concrete, and in the cursory treatment of various important questions, the appeal to the younger mind is evident, and it would not serve so well the needs of elementary college classes for a handbook on Roman history as Pelham's *Outlines*, for instance. And yet such chapters as those on the successful struggles of the plebeians, the expansion beyond the sea, and the beginning of the revolution, are written with such a splendid power of condensation, such a grasp of the essential points of the story and insight into the deeper significance of the movements portrayed, that they could hardly, within similar compass, be surpassed.

The preface emphasizes the author's aim that his narrative should (1) be concrete, (2) show unity in the story, and (3) portray all sides of Roman life. It is to be regretted that he was not able to carry out more adequately the plan to treat of the *social* history of Rome, so important to the pupil of the high-school stage. It is just this that the extension of the history into the Middle Ages makes impossible. He has succeeded in his effort to emphasize the continuity of Roman history, and yet by constant summaries keeps well defined the various periods—a thing essential to the student's mastery of the subject.

One misses in the text the bibliographies and lists of sources, but an excellent supplementary handbook gives these, along with many helpful suggestions. From the pedagogical point of view this is the most important single feature of the book, and it is to be hoped that both teachers and students will make use of it. Even in the secondary schools students should acquire some acquaintance with the original sources. The illustrations are sufficiently numerous and good; there are many maps, some, however, as those on pp. 45 and 95, being too condensed to be serviceable. The book is well printed and almost free from mistakes.

Professor Abbott's painstaking scholarship is evident throughout the book. On some points he has avoided statements made in his *Institutions*. Here and

there is to be found the inevitable omission, or the dogmatic assertion of debatable points. One notes, for instance, the failure to mention at all Hannibal's hopes of Gallic and Italian aid in his great campaign and the disastrous results of their non-realization. The important position assigned Cicero in the senatorial programme, § 297, might perhaps be expected from so sympathetic an interpreter of Cicero as Professor Abbott. As a whole, the book is noteworthy for its definiteness and exactness. The rise of the new nobility and the defeat of the democracy following hard on its seeming success, the inevitable though unforeseen results of the imperialistic policy, the conversion of an economic into a political struggle beginning with the Gracchi, and many other such matters are portrayed with a clearness characteristic of the author's determination to leave nothing essential in his narrative unexplained.

It is a source of satisfaction that our elementary historical textbooks are at last being written by competent scholars, and Professor Abbott's work is of such a character that no teacher of history can afford not to investigate its merits.

C. K. CHASE

EARLHAM COLLEGE

Griechische Schulgrammatik. Von Curtius v. Hartel. Bearbeitet von Dr. Florian Weigel. 25. durchgesehene Auflage. Wien: F. Temsky, 1906. Pp. iv+299. Kr. 3.10.

This is a grammar of Attic Greek with a good Homeric grammar of fortyseven pages added. Part I, "Formenlehre," can hardly be too highly praised. The doctrine of the ablaut and the established principles of the new philology are embodied in the main treatment. The $\underline{\iota}$ and the $\underline{v}(\xi)$, the apparent diphthong, and the recognition of verb-stems in s (τελέω, τελεσ-) render many irregularities regular and reveal obscure relations. An admirable handling, with enlightening explanation, Indo-European comparisons (especially Latin), the use of analogy, and the invariable cross-reference, makes the treatment unusually effective. The analytical arrangement of the material, independent of the marginal section numbers for reference, the appeal to reason as well as memory, and the excellent typography, displaying the logic of the treatment and presenting an open page in comfortable letter, are also pedagogical virtues. It is gratifying to have the model verb developed and set in paradigm by tense systems. Unfortunately, in the full verb paradigm the moods read down instead of across the page, as the systems presented them. The treatment of each verb class, otherwise freshened by the new view-point, is illustrated by an extended list in conspicuous diagram presenting the principal parts and stems. One wonders that no mention is made of the classical Attic names of letters and of the aspiration of initial v, and that no explanation is offered of the origin of e in the future of liquid verbs. The addition of the following cross-references seems needful: 10, 3, c, A. 3 u. 4 at 105, 1; 104, 1 at 113, 4; 88, Bem. 1 u. 83, Bem. 1 at 119, Bem. 1; and 112, 1, A at 119, Bem. 4, b.

The syntax calls for less comment. Its brevity (eighty-four pages) is the result of concise statement of essentials, reference to parallel Latin and German constructions, and the omission of source references after the examples. Rarely is a treatment so disappointing as when is with the participle is simply listed under circumstantial participles of cause and purpose.

Defects are rare: πεν σ-τατος for πενέστατος (59, 2, b, A); βέβλαφα for βέβλαφα (100, 4); O for 'O (197); αίτως for αίτως (165, 2); φύξιμο-ς better φύξιμο-ς (φυγ-σιμο-ς) (136,7); the stems are omitted from the paradigms of -μι verbs at 119. An awkward use of the semicolon sometimes (e. g., 162, 3) makes the Greek examples appear like a series of questions. Questions followed by translation sometimes receive the? and sometimes do not (cf. 156, b and 162, 3). The book lacks a preface and table of contents.

WILLIAM S. EBERSOLE

CORNELL COLLEGE Mount Vernon, Ia.

Nine Orations of Cicero. With Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary. By Albert Harkness, John C. Kirtland, and George A. Williams. New York: American Book Co., 1906. Pp. 544. \$1.25.

The orations presented in this edition are those against Catiline, those for the Manilian Law, the poet Archias, Marcellus, and Ligarius, and the Fourteenth *Philippic*.

Professor Harkness' previous editions of school classics have been found acceptable for so many years by so many teachers that the accurate scholarship of this new edition by him and his assistants may be assumed. The excellence of its mechanical execution is evident at a glance. The preface states that it is intended to be emphatically a student's edition, and it is therefore from this point of view that one should consider the special features to which the editor calls attention—namely, the introductory matter, the illustrations, and the annotation.

The introduction compares well with those of other editions in simplicity and attractiveness of style, and in clearness of presentation, but its seventy pages might profitably be shortened by the omission of much matter, interesting in itself and well presented, but of no special value for the high-school student; for instance, the page and a half on the *De natura deorum*, and the account of the method of filling vacancies in the College of Pontiffs.

The maps are adequate and clear, and the illustrations, on the whole, judiciously chosen, and not so numerous or far-fetched as to prove unduly distracting to the already distracted mind of the modern boy or girl. The views of the Forum, restored, and in its present state, Macarri's Denunciation of Catiline, and perhaps half a dozen other illustrations will be found interesting and helpful. On the other hand, the Medea on p. 166, and the Fortuna on p. 177, will not

help the student to realize the rapacity of Lucullus' army or the good fortune of Pompey.

The notes are scholarly and usually to the point. One fails to see why, in the many instances where the needed elucidation is given directly, a grammar reference follows which gives no additional information in return for the exertion of turning over additional leaves and the interruption of one's train of thought. One is sometimes tempted to ask whether this familiar and laborious process must be accepted as the best, or even as a good, method of acquiring a knowledge of Latin grammar.

It is doubtful whether the average student will make much use of the frequent references to preceding notes and passages; fairly certain that he will make no use of the occasional references to subsequent passages. The 168 pages of notes might well be shortened by the omission of many unimportant details; for instance, the subsequent careers of the two praetors who were sent to the Mulvian Bridge. Cicero's tribute to them as brave and patriotic men might seem sufficient.

The directions inserted at intervals for special study of definite grammatical or historical points will be appreciated by many teachers. On the whole it may be said of the notes that they have the great and rather unusual merit of being written for the student and not for the teacher.

MARY INSTITUTE St. Louis, Mo. JENNIE R. LIPPMAN

Greek Reader, Vol. II. Adapted, with English Notes, from von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff's Griechisches Lesebuch. By E. C. MARCHANT. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1906. \$0.50.

No fault can be found with the Reader on the score of its make-up, and little enough for errors of any kind. The selections, save the last, are probably the best that could be made. The last is doubtful. Hiero on the Vacuum has an interest, but hardly for students likely to use the Reader, namely, second- or third-year men. All the selections are intended to interest and instruct a student in matters not found in ordinary Greek readers. One selection is "classic," that from Aeschylus' Persians. The others are from Plutarch, Arrian, etc. At any rate no pupil who uses the book will, like the well-parasanged Greeks of Xenophon, see a dust-cloud arising toward evening when he begins to study.

The notes, like those in Part I, are apt, straight to the point, sharp. One feels that they are too much so at times, and, farther, the effort to be brief has resulted in the omission of notes that might well have been given. Mr. Marchant has subtracted from and added to the notes in the original, and, with the single fault mentioned, his adaptation meets the needs of English-speaking students. The criticism of Part I, because it had no vocabulary, again applies. A reader of this grade ought to have one. The smaller Liddell and Scott, to which Mr. Marchant refers, is not suitable at this stage, at least for American pupils.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

CHARLES M. Moss

Thucydides, Book VI, Chapters xxx-xliii and lx-cv (end). The First Part of the Sicilian Expedition. Edited for Beginners in Greek, with Introduction, Vocabulary, and Notes. Percy Ure. London: John Murray, 1906.

Those who edit books of this kind for beginners ought to follow Socrates' advice, and define the term they use. On the second page of the text is a sentence seventeen lines long that has taxed older students than beginners to put into suitable English. Mr. Ure omits most of the speeches. Even the narrative parts of Thucydides are not for babes and sucklings, although a selection from his entire work could be made that would not be too difficult.

The most obvious fault of this book is its English. The sentences are distorted and the use of pronouns is especially confusing.

There are eighty pages of notes to fifty of text, a wrong proportion for beginners in Thucydides. Many notes that the text demands are absent. One may also criticize the imperfect statement of grammatical principles; readers will be puzzled to know how an adjective can have a subject; whether rapely can mean "created" ("literally"); and "to wit" for rai where it means "even" is interesting. The vocabulary would seem strange to an American student. The editor plans to cut off by a hyphen the declensional endings, except those of first-declension feminines; but does not always do so. The principal parts of some verbs are given, a portion of others; some forms are conjugated, some not; some have a synopsis through the moods of a given stem. It is helpful, however, that bizarre forms are given under their first letter.

CHARLES M. Moss

University of Illinois

Dew Literature

BOOKS

CONYBEARE, F. C., and STOCK, ST. GEORGE. Selections from the Septuagint. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. v+318.

An annotated edition of selections from the Septuagint, which will be welcomed by teachers who whist to extend their courses beyond the limits of Attic Greek.

COOK, A. M., and MARCHANT, E. C. Latin Passages for Unseen Translation. London: Methuen & Co., 1906. Pp. 128. 13. 6d.

The third edition of a book of proved usefulness, containing two hundred passages arranged in order of increasing difficulty. Prose and verse alternate throughout.

DuBois, Elizabeth Hickman. The Stress Accent in Latin Poetry. New York: Columbia University Press [The Macmillan Co., Agents], 1906. Pp. 96.

Attempts to reconcile the opposing views as to an apparent clash between word-accent and verseaccent.

FRAENKEL, E. Griechische Denomination, in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwickelung und Verbreitung. Berlin doctoral dis ertation. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht, 1906. Pp. 296. M. 8.

An elaborate and careful piece of work by a student of Solmsen, Wilamowitz,-Moellendorf, and Wilhelm Schulze.

GOODWIN, WILLIAM W. The Agamemnon of Aeschylus. A Revised Text and a Translation. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1006.

The edition prepared for use at the presentation of the Agamemnon at Harvard University on June 16, 19, 1906. Text and translation are on opposite pages.

KYNASTON, H. Euripides' Alcestis. Translated into English. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1906. Pp. xxx+44.

WHITELAW, ROBERT. Sophocles' Antigone. Translated into English.
Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1906. Pp. 1+56. 15. net.

The first two volumes of a projected series of metrical translations of Greek masterpieces, intended for the use of schools and university-extension classes. The introductions and notes are by J. Churton Collins. Binding, printing, and price are equally attractive.

LINDBLOM, A. J. In Silii Italici Punica Quaestiones. Commentatio Academica. Upsaliae, 1906. Pp. 140.

Is modeled on Samuelsson's Studia in Valerium Flaccum (Ups. 1899), but deals chiefly with Silius' moods and tenses. Its publication at this time is an indication of the renewed interest felt in Silius' work as a result of Summers' edition (Postgate's Corpus, London, 1904), which differs in many passages from Bauer's text, and has given rise to many questions which can only be settled through a better knowledge of Silius' syntax and style.

Long, F. P. Caesar's Civil War. Translated with Introduction and Notes. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1906. Pp. xxviii+228. 11 maps. 3s. 6d. net.

A handy edition of the Civil War in English translation. The Introduction deals briefly with some phases of the political situation of the time; the notes which are at the bottom of the page, are confined within the briefest compass.

NUTTING, H. C. A Supplementary Latin Composition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1906.

A revised and enlarged edition of the book published in 1901. Part I consists of exercises of isolated sentences and is intended to provide a series of systematic grammatical tests for students who have worked through some standard composition book; Part II (the new feature of the volume) contains forty exercises in connected discourse. so arranged as to give a coherent account of the life of Catiline. Symonds, Aubrey V. The Annals of Tacitus: Books i to vi; translated into English. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co. [New York: The Macmillan Co.], 1906. Pp. xiii+295.

This translation is one of the volumes of the "New Classical Library" series, edited by Emil Reich. A brief introduction, occasional footnotes, and an index of names complete the equipment of the book

ARTICLES

Otto, Walter F. Mania und Lares. Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik XV (1906). 113-20.

Otto thinks that Wissowa in his Religion und Kullus der Römer and especially his article in Archiv für Religionsvissenschaft VII. 42 fl., has shown the weakness of Samter's defense of the traditional view of the Lares as the spirits of ancestors. He does not, however, agree with Wissowa in excluding them from the circle of gods of the lower world. He sees no serious obstacle in the difference of quantity between Läres on the one side and Lärenta, Lärunda on the other. In his opinion the Lares were chthonic deities worshiped as spirits of fruitfulness.

Pichon, René. L'origine du recueil des "Panegyrici Latini." Revue des études anciennes VIII (1906). 229-49.

Pichon combats the view of Seeck that panegyrics ii-ix are the work of Eumenius, and is in favor of assigning them to different authors. This is not a new theory, as the arguments of Brandt (Eumenius und die ihm zugeschriebenen Reden) tended in the same direction; but while Brandt based his contention mainly on differences in language, style, and ethical content, Pichon builds up his case on historical grounds.

Postgate, J. P. The Codex Lusaticus of Propertius. Classical Review XX (1906). 338, 339.

Throws doubt upon the conclusions of Koehler in his article "Eine neue Properz-handschrift," in *Philologus* XVIII, pp. 414 ff. According to Koehler this codex (it was discovered in 1893) is , best fitted to form with N the basis of the text

of Propertius." Postgate adduces evidence to show that it is derived from the same source as L (Lord Leicester's manuscript at Holkham), and is of very little independent value.

SKUTSCH, FR. Zur lateinischen Syntax.

Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie
und Grammatik XV (1906). 34-54.

Skutsch is of the opinion that while Latin phonology and morphology have reached the point where a historical view of the whole subject begins to be possible. Latin syntax lags far behind. His explanation of the situation is that investigation in the former fields has been carried on by men who had both philological and linguistic training, while syntactical research has been for the most part in the hands of philologians without linguistic training. That syntax cannot be separated from the other branches of grammar he regards as demonstrated by the fact that syntactical phenomena are often controlled by the phonetic and morphological characteristics of words. A number of notes on miscellaneous topics illustrate the thesis.

STEELE, R. B. The Gerund and Gerundive in Livy. American Journal of Philology XXVII (1906). 280-305.

Another addition to Steele's list of contributions to our knowledge of the syntax of Livy. The systematic arrangement of the mass of material, besides giving a good general survey of Livy's usage, makes the article readily accessible to students and teachers of Livy.

Wölfflin, Eduard. Die Sprache des Claudius Quadrigarius. Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik XV (1906). 10-22.

Brings out the fact that the forms used by Quadrigarius are not much more archaic than would be expected in a writer belonging to the age of Sulla; that in any case the effort to give an archaic stamp to his style is not so apparent in Quadrigarius as in Sallust. On the other hand there is a noticeable tendency in the direction of poetical diction, e.g., the frequent use of the collective singular, and of the poetical plural. To Latin syntax Quadrigarius made a substantial contribution in developing the possibilities of the ablative absolute.